

Hyperactive reactive oxygen species impair function of porcine Sertoli cells via suppression of surface protein ITGB1 and connexin-43

DEAR EDITOR,

Gap junctions regulate intercellular communication between Sertoli cells and germ cells in male testes and play vital functions in spermatogenesis. Many factors in animal breeding and husbandry can induce oxidative stress, which can impair the testis microenvironment and male animal fertility. However, the underlying mechanisms are largely unknown. Recently, we identified that androgen signals promote the expression of connexin-43 (Cx43), a key component of gap junctions, to regulate spermatogenesis. Thus, we asked whether hyperactive reactive oxygen species (ROS) can impair gap junctions by interfering with Cx43 in porcine testes. Using a porcine Sertoli cell *in vitro* system, we found that hyperactive ROS caused extensive apoptosis in Sertoli cells, remarkable decrease in Cx43 expression, and failed maintenance of co-cultured spermatogonial stem cells (SSCs), indicating that ROS impaired the function of Sertoli cells and promoted loss of SSCs. This observation provides a possible mechanism for the impact of ROS on fertility of male animals.

As germline stem cells residing in the testicular basal membrane, SSCs are responsible for producing functional sperm (Shinohara et al., 1999). The capacity of spermatogenesis determines the fertility of male animals. One spermatogonial stem cell in the seminiferous tubules is embraced by two Sertoli cells to form a unique structure called a niche. The testicular microenvironment is composed of several types of supporting cells. For example, specialized Sertoli cells are located at the base of testicular seminiferous tubules and exhibit multiple functions, such as protection of SSCs and provision of extrinsic signals for spermatogenesis (Naughton, 2006). Moreover, they promote germ-cell differentiation, meiosis, and transformation into spermatozoa

(Phillips et al., 2010). Therefore, it is important to understand the physiological and metabolic characteristics of Sertoli cells in male reproduction. Many types of intercellular interactions between SSCs and Sertoli cells have been identified, including gap junctions (Xia et al., 2005). Gap junctions are a type of cellular interaction involved in diverse biological processes. They are closely related to spermatogenesis, with earlier studies revealing potential signaling pathways that influence the fate of spermatogonia and spermatocytes in differentiation and migration (Xia et al., 2005). Cx43 is an important gap junction protein (Laird et al., 1991). Cx43 is synthesized and trafficked through the endoplasmic reticulum like a typical integral membrane protein (Musil & Goodenough, 1993), and has been identified as a pivotal molecule regulating blood-testis barrier dynamics (Li et al., 2009). These observations indicate that Cx43 in Sertoli cells is closely associated with spermatogenesis.

Among the many harmful factors impacting livestock reproduction, oxidative stress has been well studied. ROS have been shown to decrease sperm and oocyte quality in rodents (Lane et al., 2014), porcines (Kang et al., 2013), bovines (Arias et al., 2017), and humans (Prasad et al., 2016). ROS exhibit diverse derivations, such as ultraviolet radiation, X-rays, gamma rays, and atmospheric pollutants (Nisar et al., 2013). These various sources of ROS imply an inevitable threat to male fertility in animal breeding and husbandry. In addition to the impact on spermatogonia, oxidative stress also affects the function of Sertoli cells (Liu et al., 2018). Sertoli cells reside in the basal membrane of seminiferous tubules and regulate germ cell fate via direct interaction or release of signaling molecules (Johnson et al., 2008). Many regulatory patterns have been identified, i.e., androgen controls the permeability of the blood-testis barrier to regulate SSC differentiation (Meng et al., 2005). Our previous studies

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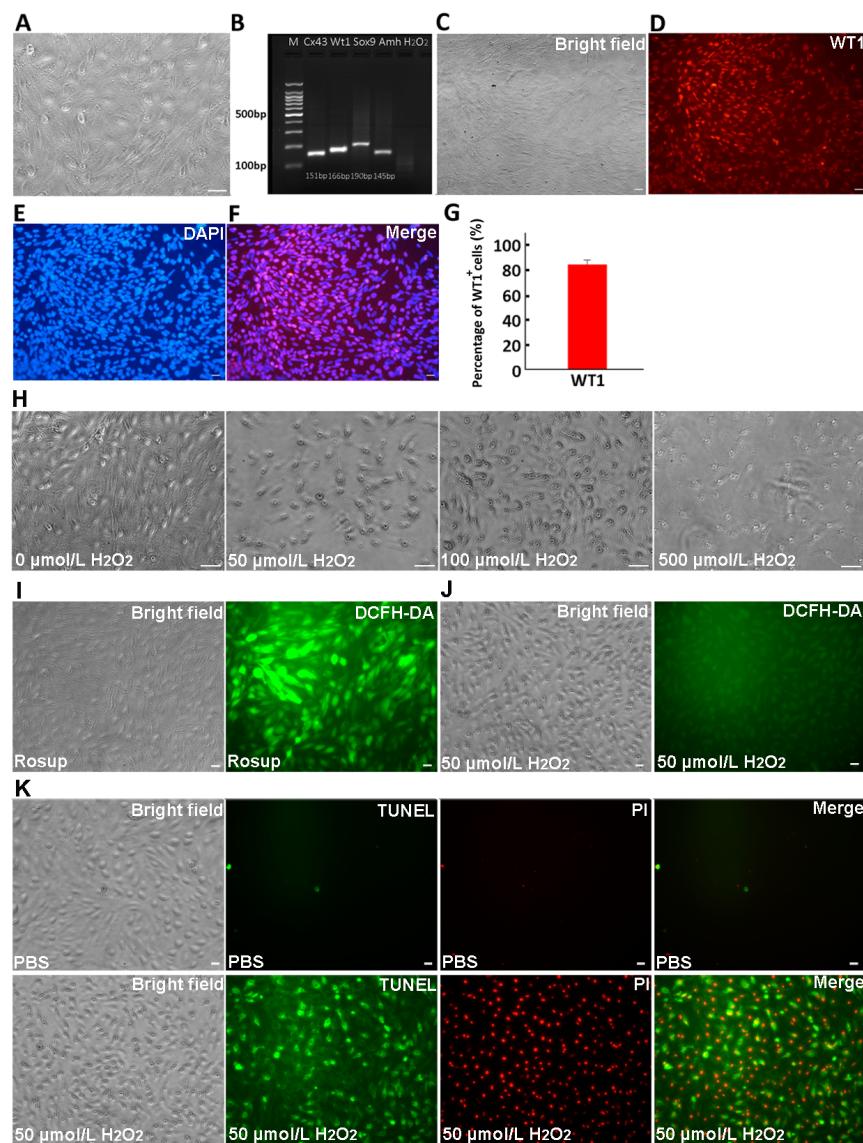
revealed that androgen regulates ITGB1, a key molecule for SSC homing, via WT1 in Sertoli cells (Wang et al., 2019), and regulates Cx43 protein expression in Sertoli cells (Xia et al., 2020). These observations suggest that androgen signaling participates in the regulatory process of SSC fate via the intercellular molecules between Sertoli cells and SSCs. Thus, we asked whether oxidative stress affects these pivotal molecules in Sertoli cells, which directly influence spermatogonia fate.

Here, we investigated the impact of oxidative stress on Sertoli cells using an *in vitro* system and determined the expression of Sertoli cell markers and apoptosis ratio. The results demonstrated that the hyperactive ROS disturbed the expression of Cx43 in Sertoli cells and affected the co-cultured SSCs in this system, suggesting that the hyperactive ROS impaired the function of Cx43. The detailed materials and

methods are available in the Supplementary Online file.

After purification differential adhesion and hypotonic treatment to remove germ cells, followed by 24 h culture, Sertoli cells displayed polygonal morphology and the nucleus was clearly visible (Figure 1A). Reverse Transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) verified the expression of Sertoli cell markers Cx43, WT1, AMH, and SOX9 (Figure 1B). The expression of WT1 was also detected using immunofluorescence to identify the purity of the isolated cells (Figures 1C–F). Statistical analysis revealed that the purity of the Sertoli cells was over 80% (Figure 1G). Collectively, purified Sertoli cells from 7-d-old porcines were obtained.

To investigate the impact of ROS on Sertoli cell growth status, 1×10^5 Sertoli cells cultured in 24-well plates were supplemented with various doses of H_2O_2 . No obvious morphological changes were observed at low H_2O_2 doses (10



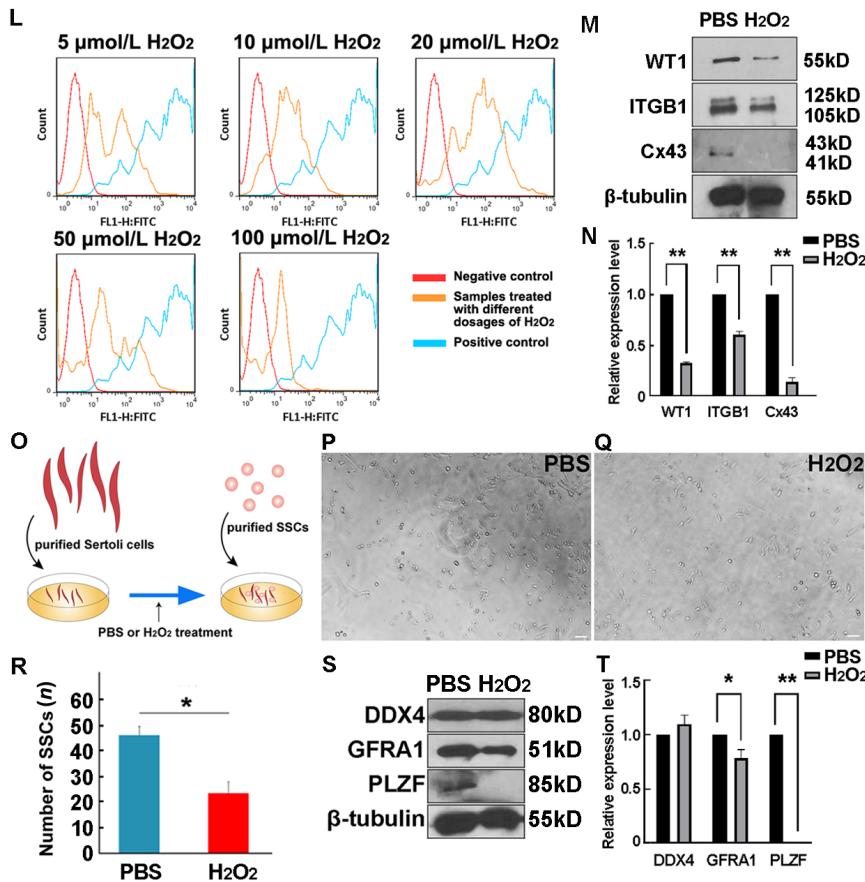


Figure 1 Hyperactive reactive oxygen species (ROS) disturbed expression of Cx43 in Sertoli cells and affected co-cultured SSCs

A: Purified Sertoli cells were plated on dishes for culture. B: Expression levels of Sertoli cell markers, Cx43, WT1, AMH, and Sox9, were detected in purified Sertoli cells by RT-PCR, $n=3$. C-F: Purity of Sertoli cells was determined using IF staining against WT1 (C: Bright field; D: WT1; E: DAPI; F: Merge). G: Percentage of WT1⁺ cells is presented as mean percentage \pm SEM, $n=5$. H: Morphology of Sertoli cells treated with 0, 50 μ mol/L H₂O₂, 100 μ mol/L H₂O₂, or 500 μ mol/L H₂O₂ is shown. I, J: Images of DCFH-DA fluorescence were taken for positive control group (Rosup provided by the Reactive Oxygen Species Assay Kit, Beyotime) (I) and 50 μ mol/L H₂O₂-treated group, $n=5$ (J). K: Apoptosis signal detection using Annexin V-FITC/PI kit. PBS- and 50 μ mol/L H₂O₂-treated groups, $n=5$. L: ROS levels in Sertoli cells treated with different concentrations of H₂O₂ (5, 10, 20, 50, or 100 μ mol/L, $n=3$) were analyzed by flow cytometry. M, N: Sertoli cells treated with PBS or 50 μ mol/L H₂O₂ for 48 h were harvested to detect protein levels of WT1, ITGB1, and Cx43 using Western blotting, with data presented as means \pm SEM, $n=3$, **: $P<0.01$ (N). O: Schematic of Sertoli cell and SSC co-culture system. P, Q: Morphology of co-culture of SSCs maintained with PBS- (P) or H₂O₂- (Q) treated Sertoli cells for 48 h is displayed. R: Number of SSCs in PBS- or H₂O₂-treated Sertoli cells was statistically analyzed, $n=3$. S, T: Protein levels of DDX4, GFRA1, and PLZF in PBS- and H₂O₂-treated SSCs were analyzed using Western blotting; Data are presented as mean percentage \pm SEM, $n=3$, *: $P<0.05$, **: $P<0.01$ (t -test) (T). Scale bars: 20 μ m.

μ mol/L and 20 μ mol/L, data not shown). However, as the dosage increased, cell number decreased and cell morphology changed and began to shrink. Obvious impact on cell morphology was observed at a H₂O₂ concentration of 50 μ mol/L. The cell structure also changed, with a large number of cells showing atrophy when the H₂O₂ concentration increased to 100 μ mol/L, and extensive Sertoli cell death observed when the H₂O₂ concentration increased to 500 μ mol/L (Figure 1H). We then performed dichloro-dihydro-fluorescein diacetate (DCFH-DA) fluorescent dye staining to detect ROS levels; however, only a weak ROS signal was detected at the dose of 50 μ mol/L H₂O₂ (Figure 1I, J).

Subsequently, the Sertoli cells (1×10^4) were stained with Annexin V-FITC/PI for apoptosis ratio analysis under ROS stress. We found that when cells were treated with 50 μ mol/L H₂O₂, the number of apoptotic cells increased significantly (Figure 1K). In addition, many necrotic cells were observed in the group treated with 250 μ mol/L H₂O₂ (data not shown), indicating that a high dose of H₂O₂ was lethal to Sertoli cells. We further clarified the dosage effect of H₂O₂ on Sertoli cells using flow cytometry. Two major populations were observed based on ROS levels, with the proportion of the higher-level ROS population increasing in the 20 μ mol/L H₂O₂ group, but decreasing in the 50 μ mol/L H₂O₂ and 100 μ mol/L H₂O₂

groups (Figure 1L). This was likely due to increasing ROS levels causing extensive death of Sertoli cells. It is also worth noting that the induced ROS signal clearly appeared under 5 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ H_2O_2 (Figure 1L), indicating that Sertoli cells were sensitive to H_2O_2 stimulation.

As a key gap junction protein, the expression level of Cx43 is closely related to Sertoli cell function (Xia et al., 2005). Thus, we treated Sertoli cells with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) or 50 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ H_2O_2 for 48 h to test the possible effects of ROS on Cx43 expression. Western blotting revealed that Cx43 expression was significantly down-regulated in the 50 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ H_2O_2 -treated group compared with the PBS-treated group (Figure 1M). In addition, the expression levels of WT1, a Sertoli cell marker, and ITGB1, a key surface molecule for Sertoli cell-SSC interaction, were significantly decreased (Figure 1M, N). Collectively, these observations indicate that the structure and function of Sertoli cells were impaired under ROS stress.

As an important component of the testicular microenvironment, the damage induced by H_2O_2 should affect SSC maintenance. To test this hypothesis, Sertoli cells were treated with PBS or 50 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ H_2O_2 for 24 h and then co-cultured with purified SSCs for 48 h (Figure 1O). Compared with the PBS-treated group, the number of SSCs decreased significantly in the H_2O_2 -treated group (Figure 1P, R). Further analysis demonstrated that the expression levels of SSC markers GFRA1 and PLZF were down-regulated after H_2O_2 treatment (Figure 1S, T), thus indicating that the number of undifferentiated spermatogonia was reduced. However, there was no significant difference in the level of DDX4 in the PBS and H_2O_2 treatment groups, which may be due to an increase in the number of differentiated spermatogonia in the H_2O_2 treated group. These results suggest that the impaired Sertoli cells affected the maintenance of SSCs and probably led to differentiation.

Although *in vitro* culture of porcine SSCs is still a challenging project, recent studies have taken a step forward in the long-term maintenance and establishment of porcine SSC lines (Sun et al., 2019). In this study, a co-culture system was used to explore the impact of a representative harmful factor, ROS, on Sertoli cell function. Although high levels of ROS in germlines are known to be risky, knowledge regarding the impact of ROS on Sertoli cells is limited. In particular, the influence on Sertoli cell-germ cell interactions remains poorly identified. This directly determines the capacity of spermatogenesis, as demonstrated by the successful establishment of tree shrew spermatogonial stem cells with Sertoli feeder cells in culture systems (Li et al., 2017).

ROS are mainly produced by mitochondria during cell metabolism in various cell types (Scherz-Shouval et al., 2007). Studies have demonstrated that ROS play regulatory roles in various stem cells. For example, ROS are instantaneously generated during embryoid development and regulate cardiotypic development in embryonic stem cell-derived embryoid bodies (Sauer et al., 2000). ROS signaling regulates the cellular pathways involved in neuronal differentiation and

neuronal stem cell proliferation (Vieira et al., 2011). Increased ROS levels drive hematopoietic stem cell differentiation (Ludin et al., 2014). However, ROS may play very different roles in different types of stem cells. In some types of stem cells, ROS induce apoptosis, while in others, ROS may promote self-renewal. In male germlines, the effects of ROS are interesting. Although ROS are generally considered harmful to spermatogenesis, previous study has reported that the self-renewal of SSCs requires a certain level of ROS, with no significant effects observed at 30 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ H_2O_2 , but with proliferation inhibited by the addition of >100 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ H_2O_2 (Morimoto et al., 2015). However, our data revealed that even low doses of H_2O_2 disturbed Sertoli cell maintenance and inhibited expression of key surface functional proteins, indicating that SSCs and Sertoli cells may have different tolerances to ROS stress. In the co-culture system, we observed a reduced number of SSCs maintained with H_2O_2 -treated Sertoli cells. Expression levels of undifferentiated markers GFRA1 and PLZF decreased markedly, but total germ cell marker DDX4 was not altered. Based on our previous studies (Wang et al., 2019; Xia et al., 2020), loss of ITGB1 or Cx43 facilitates SSC differentiation. Thus, impaired Sertoli cell function by ROS can lead to loss of SSCs and promotion of SSC differentiation, and differentiated germ cells possibly compensate the expression of DDX4. Notably, some studies have reported that antioxidants, such as lycopene (Krishnamoorthy et al., 2013) and genistein (Zhang et al., 2017), eliminate ROS in Sertoli cells and rescue spermatogenesis, indicating some potential ways to protect fertility of boars.

Collectively, the impact of ROS on two pivotal surface proteins in Sertoli cells was revealed, and an *in vitro* model confirmed that this damage affected the maintenance of spermatogonia, implying potential damage to the testicular niche. However, further studies using *in vivo* models are required, including studies on the link between ROS dosage in Sertoli cells and SSC fate.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data to this article can be found online.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

K.Z. proposed the ideas. D.C.Z. drafted the manuscript. R.C., Y.H.C., J.J.W. and C.Y. revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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Supplementary material

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animal Material

Testes were acquired from 7-d-old male boars following castration. All animal experiments and procedures were approved by the Animal Protection Committee of Nanjing Agricultural University.

Isolation of porcine Sertoli cells

Sertoli cell isolation procedures were based on previous study (Wang et al., 2019), with some modifications. In brief, porcine Sertoli cells were isolated from 7-d-old porcine testes. We used two testes each time (30 testes in total). The tunica albuginea was removed, with the tissues snipped and then digested with 1 mg/mL of collagenase IV in an incubator at 37 °C for 30 min. After rinsing with D-Hanks solution and centrifugation at 600 g for 5 min at room temperature, red blood cell lysis buffer was added, followed by incubation at 4 °C for 15 min. After centrifugation at 600 g for 5 min at room temperature and rinsing with D-Hanks solution, the tissues were digested in 0.05% Trypsin-EDTA at 37 °C for 10 min. Digestion was monitored via microscopy. Medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) was used to neutralize the reaction. The digested products were filtered with 70 µm Nylon mesh to remove large particles or cell clumps, followed by centrifugation at 600 g for 5 min at room temperature, after which the supernatant was discarded. The pellet was resuspended in DMEM/F12 medium (Gibco, USA) supplemented with 10% FBS, 2 mmol/L L-glutamine, and 100 U/mL penicillin and then cultured at 37 °C and 5% CO₂. After 4 h, hypotonic treatment (20 mmol/L Tris-HCl pH 7.4) was performed to remove germ cells. After purification, the number of Sertoli cells in 24-well plates was 1×10^6 . Immunofluorescent staining of WT1, a Sertoli cell-specific marker, was employed, with the proportion of WT1⁺ cells representing Sertoli cell purity. Statistical analysis revealed that the purity was over 80% (Figure 1C-G).

Treatment of Sertoli cells before co-culture

We used hypotonic treatment to purify Sertoli cells. Cells were cultured at 37 °C and 5% CO₂ for 24 h. When cell deformation was observed, we treated the cultured Sertoli cells with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) or 50 µmol/L H₂O₂ for 24 h in 24-well plates in preparation for culture with spermatogonial stem cells (SSCs).

Co-culture of SSCs and Sertoli cells

Porcine SSCs were derived as reported previously (Zhang et al., 2017). Briefly, testes from 7-d-old porcines were cut into pieces and digested with collagenase type IV and then treated with red blood cell lysis buffer. After rinsing with D-Hanks and trypsin treatment, the supernatant was removed following centrifugation at 600 g for 5 min at room temperature. The pellet was resuspended in DMEM/F12 medium (Gibco) supplemented with 1% FBS, 2 mmol/L L-glutamine, 10% knockout serum replacement (Invitrogen), 5 mg/mL bovine serum albumin (MP Biomedicals), N₂ medium (Invitrogen), non-essential amino acid (Invitrogen), vitamins, 50 µmol/L β-mercaptoethanol, 10 µg/mL D-biotin (Sigma), 1 µg/mL DL-lactic acid, 100 nmol/L ascorbic acid, 20 ng/mL GDNF (Rat GDNF Peprotech 450-51), and 10 ng/mL bFGF (Human FGF2 Peprotech 100-18B). After two rounds of differential plating, porcine SSCs were transferred to Sertoli cells for co-culture at 37 °C with 5% CO₂. After purification, the number of SSCs was approximately 1×10^4 . Follow-up H₂O₂ experiments were repeated at least three times.

Detection of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in Sertoli cells

Sertoli cells were treated with 0, 5, 10, 20, or 50 µmol/L H₂O₂ for 24 h. ROS levels were then

determined using a Reactive Oxygen Species Assay Kit (Beyotime). Rosup was used to treat Sertoli cells as a positive control (Figure 1I), and PBS-treated Sertoli cells were used as a negative control (data not shown). Sertoli cells were incubated in DMEM/F12 medium with DCFH-DA (1:1 000) for 20 min at 37 °C in a 5% CO₂ incubator. After rinsing with PBS for three times, fluorescent signals were examined using FACSCalibur (BD Biosciences) and fluorescence microscopy.

Analysis of apoptotic cells

Sertoli cells were treated with 0, 5, 10, 20, or 50 μmol/L H₂O₂ for 24 h. Apoptosis was examined using an Annexin V-FITC Apoptosis Detection Kit (Beyotime). Briefly, cells were rinsed with PBS once and then incubated with Annexin V-FITC and propidium iodide (PI) in Annexin V-FITC binding buffer for 20 min in the dark at room temperature. Fluorescent signals were detected using fluorescence microscopy. Three replicates were performed for the experiments.

Immunofluorescence staining

Cells cultured on 24-well plates were rinsed three times with PBS and fixed with Carnoy for 20 min at -20 °C. Subsequently, cells were rinsed with PBS three times and then blocked with 10% goat serum in PBS for 30 min at room temperature. Cells were then incubated with anti-WT1 (Abcam, ab89901) antibody in PBS at 4 °C overnight. After rinsing with PBS three times, cells were incubated with secondary antibody Alexa Flour532 goat anti-rabbit (Invitrogen, A-11009) for 30 min at 37 °C. DAPI was used to counterstain the nucleus and samples were detected using fluorescence microscopy. Three replicate experiments were carried out for staining.

Real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR)

Total RNA was isolated using TRIzol (Tiangen, DP405) and converted into cDNA with a PrimeScript RT Master Mix (Takara, RR036A). To analyze gene expression, PCR was performed with Taq DNA polymerase (Takara, R001WZ) under the following conditions: 5 min denaturation at 95 °C, 35 cycles at 95 °C for 30 s, annealing for primers at 55 °C or 62 °C for 30 s, and final extension for 5 min at 72 °C. Three replicates were performed. Primer information is listed in Supplementary Table S1.

Supplementary Table S1 Information on primers used in current study

Gene	Primer Sequence (5'-3')	GenBank Accession No.	Product size (bp)	Annealing temp (°C)
Cx43	F: CACCAGGTGGACTGTTCCCT R: TCTTCCCTTCACACGATCC	NM_001244212.1	151	55
WT1	F: TGAGCGAAGGTTTCTCGTT R: GCTGAAGGGTTTCACTTG	NM_001001264.1	166	55
SOX9	F: AGCAGACGCACATCTCTCCCA R: CGCCCCTCTCGCTTCAGGTCA	NM_213843.2	190	62
AMH	F: AAGCTCCTCATCAGCCTGTCT R: ATTGGGGCGATCGGGTTG	NM_214310.3	145	62

Western blotting

For Western blotting, protein samples were run on SDS PAGE gel at 80–120 V and then transferred to nitrocellulose membranes. After blockage with 5% skim milk for 1 h, nitrocellulose membranes were

incubated with primary antibodies β -tubulin (Anbo, P07437), WT1 (Abcam, ab89901), CX43 (Cell Signaling, 3512), and ITGB1 (BD, 610467) at 4 °C overnight. Peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-rabbit or mouse IgG (Santa Cruz, sc-2004, sc-2005) were used as secondary antibodies. Enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) was used to visualize the immunoreactive bands and finally expose the film. Three replicates were performed.

Statistical analysis

At least three replicates were performed for all experiments. Data were analyzed with Prism 8 and presented as means \pm SEM. Statistical significance was determined with t-tests. A *P*-value of <0.05 was considered significant. The FACSCalibur results were analyzed with FlowJo 7.6.

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